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On Maxwell Equations on Globally Hyperbolic Spacetimes with Timelike Boundary

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“The mathematician plays a game in which he himself invents the rules while the physicist plays a game in which the rules are provided by nature, but as time goes on it becomes increasingly evident that the rules which the mathematician finds interesting are the same as those which nature has chosen. ”

Paul A.M. Dirac

UNIVERSITY OF PAVIA

Abstract

Department of Physics

Master Degree

On Maxwell Equations on Globally Hyperbolic Spacetimes with Timelike Boundary

by Rubens Longhi

The Thesis Abstract is written here (and usually kept to just this page). The page is kept centered vertically so can expand into the blank space above the title too. . .

Contents

Abstract	v
Introduction	1
1 Geometric preliminaries	3
1.1 Globally Hyperbolic spacetimes with timelike boundary	3
1.2 Differential forms and operators on manifolds with boundary	6
1.3 Bounded Geometry and associated functional spaces	8
1.3.1 Sobolev spaces	9
1.3.2 Restrictions and trace maps for differential forms	10
1.4 Green operators	10
1.5 Maxwell equations for k -forms with empty boundary	14
2 Maxwell equations with interface conditions	17
2.1 Geometrical setup	17
2.2 Constraint equations: Hodge theory with interface	18
2.2.1 Hodge decomposition on compact manifold with non-empty boundary .	20
2.2.2 Hodge decomposition for compact manifold with interface	21
2.2.3 Further perspectives on Hodge decomposition	24
2.2.4 Non-dynamical Maxwell equations	25
2.3 Dynamical equations: Lagrangian subspaces	26
A Poincaré-Lefschetz duality for manifold with boundary	33
Acknowledgements	39

To my family

Introduction

Blabla

Chapter 1

Geometric preliminaries

In this chapter, we begin by recalling the basic definitions in order to fix the geometric setting in which we will work.

Globally hyperbolic spacetimes (M, g) are used in context of geometric analysis and mathematical relativity because in them there exists a smooth and spacelike Cauchy hypersurface Σ and that ensures the well-posedness of the Cauchy problem. Moreover, as shown by Bernal and Sánchez [BS05, Th. 1.1], in such spacetimes there exists a splitting for the full spacetime M as an orthogonal product $\mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$. These results corroborate the idea that in globally hyperbolic spacetimes one can preserve the notion of a global passing of time. In a globally hyperbolic spacetime, the entire future and past history of the universe can be predicted from conditions imposed at a fixed instant represented by the hypersurface Σ .

1.1 Globally Hyperbolic spacetimes with timelike boundary

The main goal of this section is to analyse the main properties of globally hyperbolic spacetimes and to generalise them to a natural class of spacetimes where boundary values problems can be formulated. This class is that of globally hyperbolic spacetimes with timelike boundary. While, in the case of $\partial M = \emptyset$ global hyperbolicity is a standard concept, in presence of a timelike boundary it has been properly defined and studied recently in [AFS18].

Manifolds with boundary. From now on M will denote a smooth connected oriented manifold of dimension $m > 1$ with boundary. M is then locally diffeomorphic to open subsets of the closed half space of \mathbb{R}^n . We will assume that the boundary ∂M , which is the set of points for which all neighbourhoods are diffeomorphic to the closed half space of \mathbb{R}^n , is smooth and, for simplicity, connected. A point $p \in M$ such that there exists an open neighbourhood U containing p diffeomorphic to an open subset of \mathbb{R}^m , is called an *interior point* and the collection of these points is indicated with $\text{Int}(M) \equiv \mathring{M}$. As a consequence $\partial M \doteq M \setminus \mathring{M}$, if non empty, can be read as an embedded submanifold $(\partial M, \iota_{\partial M})$ of dimension $n - 1$ with $\iota_{\partial M} \in C^\infty(\partial M; M)$. In addition we endow M with a smooth Lorentzian metric g of signature $(-, +, \dots, +)$ so that

ι^*g identifies a Lorentzian metric on ∂M and we require (M, g) to be time oriented. As a consequence $(\partial M, \iota_{\partial M}^*g)$ acquires the induced time orientation and we say that (M, g) has a *timelike boundary*.

For any $p \in M$, we denote by $J^+(p)$ the set of all points that can be reached by future-directed causal smooth curves emanating from p . For any subset $A \subset M$ we set $J^+(A) := \bigcup_{p \in A} J^+(p)$. If A is closed so is $J_+(A)$. We denote by $I^+(p)$ the set of all points in M that can be reached by future-directed timelike curves emanating from p . The set $I^+(p)$ is the interior of $J^+(p)$; in particular, it is an open subset of M . Interchanging the roles of future and past, we similarly define $J^-(p)$, $J^-(A)$, $I^-(p)$, see

Definition 1.1.1.

- A spacetime with timelike boundary is a time-oriented Lorentzian manifold with timelike boundary.
- A spacetime with timelike boundary is causal if it possesses no closed, causal curve.
- A causal spacetime with timelike boundary M such that for all $p, q \in M$ $J^+(p) \cap J^-(q)$ is compact is called **globally hyperbolic**.

These conditions entail the following consequences, see [AFS18, Th. 1.1 & 3.14]:

Theorem 1.1.2. Let (M, g) be a spacetime of dimension m . Then

1. (M, g) is a globally hyperbolic spacetime with timelike boundary if and only if it possesses a Cauchy surface, namely an achronal subset of M which is intersected only once by every inextendible timelike curve,
2. if (M, g) is globally hyperbolic, then it is isometric to $\mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$ endowed with the metric

$$g = -\beta d\tau^2 + h_\tau, \quad (1.1)$$

where $\tau : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a Cauchy temporal function¹, whose gradient is tangent to ∂M , $\beta \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R} \times \Sigma; (0, \infty))$ while $\mathbb{R} \ni \tau \rightarrow (\{\tau\} \times \Sigma, h_\tau)$ identifies a one-parameter family of $(n-1)$ -dimensional spacelike, Riemannian manifolds with boundaries. Each $\{\tau\} \times \Sigma$ is a smooth Cauchy surface for (M, g) .

Henceforth we will be tacitly assuming that, when referring to a globally hyperbolic spacetime with timelike boundary (M, g) , we work directly with (1.1) and we shall refer to τ as the time coordinate. Furthermore each Cauchy surface $\Sigma_\tau \doteq \{\tau\} \times \Sigma$ acquires an orientation induced from that of M .

¹Given a generic time oriented Lorentzian manifold (N, \tilde{g}) , a Cauchy temporal function is a map $\tau : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that its gradient is timelike and past-directed, while its level surfaces are Cauchy hypersurfaces.

Definition 1.1.3. A spacetime with boundary (M, g) is static if it possesses a nowhere vanishing irrotational timelike Killing vector field $\chi \in \Gamma(TM)$ whose restriction to ∂M is tangent to the boundary, i.e. $g_p(\chi, \nu) = 0$ for all $p \in \partial M$ where ν is the unit vector, normal to the boundary at p .

Remark 1.1.4. A spacetime with boundary (M, g) is *stationary* if we do not require neither the Killing vector χ nor its restriction to the boundary to be irrotational.

Locally, every stationary or static Lorentzian manifold looks like the corresponding standard one with metric (1.1) with $\chi = \partial_\tau$. Hence the static property translates into the request that both β and h_τ are independent from τ .

Definition 1.1.5. We call standard static a static spacetime with timelike boundary (M, g) isometric to $(\mathbb{R} \times \Sigma, -\beta dt^2 + h)$, where Σ is a Riemannian manifold with boundary endowed with a metric h and $\beta \in C^\infty(\Sigma, (0, \infty))$.

Corollary 1.1.6. (see [DDF19, Cor. 2]) Let (M, g) be a standard static spacetime with timelike boundary. Then also ∂M is a standard static spacetime (with empty boundary), endowed with the induced metric.

Example 1.1.7. We consider some examples of globally hyperbolic spacetimes without boundary ($\partial M = \emptyset$).

- The Minkowski spacetime $\mathbb{M}^m = (\mathbb{R}^m, \eta)$ is static and globally hyperbolic. Every space-like hyperplane (of co-dimension 1) is a Cauchy hypersurface. We have $\mathbb{M}^m = \mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$ with $\Sigma = \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$, endowed with the time-independent Euclidean metric.
- Let Σ be a Riemannian manifold with time independent metric h and $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ an interval. Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth positive function. The manifold $M = I \times \Sigma$ with the metric $g = -dt^2 + f^2(t)h$, called **cosmological spacetime**, is globally hyperbolic if and only if (Σ, h) is a complete Riemannian manifold, see [BGP15, Lem A.5.14]. This applies in particular if (Σ, h) is compact.
- The interior and exterior **Schwarzschild spacetimes**, that represent non-rotating black holes of mass $m > 0$ are globally hyperbolic. Denoting S^2 the 2-dimensional sphere embedded in \mathbb{R}^3 , we set

$$M_{\text{ext}} := \mathbb{R} \times (2m, +\infty) \times S^2,$$

$$M_{\text{int}} := \mathbb{R} \times (0, 2m) \times S^2.$$

The metric is given by

$$g = -f(r)dt^2 + \frac{1}{f(r)}dr^2 + r^2 g_{S^2},$$

where $f(r) = 1 - \frac{2m}{r}$, while $g_{S^2} = r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2$ is the polar coordinates metric on the sphere. In particular, the exterior Schwarzschild spacetime is *static* and we have $M_{\text{ext}} = \mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$ with $\Sigma = (2m, +\infty) \times S^2$, $\beta = f$ and $h = \frac{1}{f(r)} dr^2 + r^2 g_{S^2}$.

Example 1.1.8. Now we consider some examples of globally hyperbolic spacetimes with time-like boundary in which the boundary is not empty.

- The half Minkowski spacetime $\mathbb{M}^m = (\mathbb{R}^{m-1} \times [0, +\infty), \eta)$ is static and globally hyperbolic. Every spacelike half-hyperplane (of co-dimension 1) is a Cauchy hypersurface. We have $\mathbb{M}^m = \mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$ with $\Sigma = \mathbb{R}^{m-2} \times [0, +\infty)$, endowed with the time-independent Euclidean metric.
- Let Σ be a Riemannian manifold with boundary with time independent metric h and let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ an interval. Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth positive function. The manifold $M = I \times \Sigma$ with the metric $g = -dt^2 + f^2(t) h$ is globally hyperbolic if and only if (Σ, h) is a complete Riemannian manifold with boundary.

A particular role will be played by the support of the functions that we consider. In the following definition we introduce the different possibilities that we will consider - cf. [Bär15].

Definition 1.1.9. Let (M, g) be a Lorentzian spacetime with timelike boundary and let $E \rightarrow M$ be a finite rank vector bundle on M . We denote with

1. $C_c^\infty(M, E)$ the space of smooth sections of E with compact support in M while with $C_{cc}^\infty(M, E) \subset C_c^\infty(M, E)$ the collection of smooth and compactly supported sections f of E such that $\text{supp}(f) \cap \partial M = \emptyset$.
2. $C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E)$ (resp. $C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E)$) the space of strictly past compact (resp. strictly future compact) sections of E , that is the collection of $f \in C^\infty(M, E)$ such that there exists a compact set $K \subseteq M$ for which $J^+(\text{supp}(f)) \subseteq J^+(K)$ (resp. $J^-(\text{supp}(f)) \subseteq J^-(K)$), where J^\pm denotes the causal future and the causal past in M . Notice that $C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E) \cap C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E) = C_c^\infty(M, E)$.
3. $C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E)$ (resp. $C_{\text{fc}}^\infty(M, E)$) denotes the space of future compact (resp. past compact) sections of E , that is, $f \in C^\infty(M, E)$ for which $\text{supp}(f) \cap J^-(K)$ (resp. $\text{supp}(f) \cap J^+(K)$) is compact for all compact $K \subset M$.
4. $C_{\text{tc}}^\infty(M, E) := C_{\text{fc}}^\infty(M, E) \cap C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E)$, the space of timelike compact sections.
5. $C_{\text{sc}}^\infty(M, E) := C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E) \cap C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E)$, the space of spacelike compact sections.

1.2 Differential forms and operators on manifolds with boundary

To treat Maxwell equations properly and to be able to generalise them, we will use the language of differential forms. In this section (M, g) will denote a generic oriented pseudo-Riemannian

manifold with boundary with signature $(-, +, \dots, +)$ or $(+, \dots, +)$. In the former case, when the manifold is Lorentzian, it is understood that the boundary is timelike in the sense of Definition 1.1.1. We present the following definitions in such a general framework since we will work both on spacetimes (M, g) with timelike boundary and on their Cauchy hypersurfaces (Σ, h) , which are Riemannian manifolds with boundary on account of Theorem 1.1.2.

On top of a pseudo-Riemannian Hausdorff, connected, oriented and paracompact manifold (M, g) with boundary we consider the spaces of complex valued k -forms $\Omega^k(M)$, with $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, as smooth sections of $\Lambda^k T^*M$. Since (M, g) is oriented, we can identify a unique, metric-induced, Hodge operator $\star : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{m-k}(M)$, $m = \dim M$ such that, for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Omega^k(M)$, $\alpha \wedge \star\beta = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle d\mu_g$, where \wedge is the exterior product of forms and $d\mu_g$ the metric induced volume form. We endow $\Omega^k(M)$ with the standard, metric induced, pairing

$$(\alpha, \beta) := \int_M \bar{\alpha} \wedge \star\beta, \quad (1.2)$$

Remark 1.2.1. In case $E = \Lambda^k T^*M$, the spaces with support properties defined in Definition 1.1.9 will be denoted respectively by the following spaces of k -forms: $\Omega_c^k(M)$, $\Omega_{cc}^k(M)$, $\Omega_{\text{spc/sfc}}^k(M)$, $\Omega_{\text{pc/fc}}^k(M)$, $\Omega_{\text{tc/sc}}^k(M)$. If the regularity required for any of these spaces is different than smoothness, it will be denoted putting it in front of the space. For example, the space of square integrable k -forms will be indicated with $L^2\Omega^k(M)$.

We indicate the exterior derivative with $d : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M)$. A differential form α is called closed when $d\alpha = 0$ and exact when $\alpha = d\beta$ for some differential form β . Since M is endowed with a pseudo-Riemannian metric it holds that, when acting on smooth k -forms, $\star^{-1} = (-1)^{k(m-k)+\sigma_M} \star$, where σ_M is the signature of g . Combining these data we define the *codifferential* operator $\delta : \Omega^{k+1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)$ as $\delta \doteq \star^{-1} \circ d \circ \star$.

To conclude the section, we focus on the boundary ∂M and on the interplay with k -forms lying in $\Omega^k(M)$. The first step consists of defining two notable maps. These relate k -forms defined on the whole M with suitable counterparts living on ∂M and, in the special case of $k = 0$, they coincide either with the restriction to the boundary of a scalar function or with that of its projection along the direction normal to ∂M .

Remark 1.2.2. Since we will be considering not only forms lying in $\Omega^k(M)$, $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, but also those in $\Omega^k(\partial M)$, we shall distinguish the operators acting on this space with a subscript ∂ , e.g. d_∂ , \star_∂ , δ_∂ or $(\cdot)_\partial$.

Definition 1.2.3. Let (M, g) be a pseudo-Riemannian manifold with boundary together with the embedding map $\iota_\partial : \partial M \hookrightarrow M$. We call *tangential* and *normal* maps

$$t : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(\partial M) \quad \omega \mapsto t\omega \doteq \iota_{\partial}^* \omega \quad (1.3a)$$

$$\mathbf{n}: \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M) \quad \omega \mapsto \mathbf{n}\omega \doteq \star_{\partial}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{t} \circ \star_M, \quad (1.3b)$$

In particular, for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ we define

$$\Omega_{\mathbf{t}}^k(M) := \{\omega \in \Omega^k(M) \mid \mathbf{t}\omega = 0\}, \quad \Omega_{\mathbf{n}}^k(M) := \{\omega \in \Omega^k(M) \mid \mathbf{n}\omega = 0\}. \quad (1.4)$$

Remark 1.2.4. The normal map $\mathbf{n}: \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M)$ can be equivalently read as the restriction to ∂M of the contraction $\nu \lrcorner \omega$ between $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ and the vector field $\nu \in \Gamma(TM)|_{\partial M}$ which corresponds pointwisely to the outward pointing unit vector, normal to ∂M .

As last step, we observe that (1.3) together with (1.4) entail the following series of identities on $\Omega^k(M)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

$$\star \delta = (-1)^k \mathbf{d} \star, \quad \delta \star = (-1)^{k+1} \star \mathbf{d}, \quad (1.5a)$$

$$\star_{\partial} \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{t} \star, \quad \star_{\partial} \mathbf{t} = (-1)^k \mathbf{n} \star, \quad \mathbf{d}_{\partial} \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t} \mathbf{d}, \quad \delta_{\partial} \mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{n} \delta. \quad (1.5b)$$

A notable consequence of (1.5b) is that, while on manifolds with empty boundary, the operators \mathbf{d} and δ are one the formal adjoint of the other, in the case in hand, the situation is different. Indeed, a direct application of Stokes' theorem yields that

$$(\mathbf{d}\alpha, \beta) - (\alpha, \delta\beta) = (\mathbf{t}\alpha, \mathbf{n}\beta)_{\partial}, \quad (1.6)$$

for all $\alpha \in \Omega_c^k(M), \beta \in \Omega_c^{k+1}(M)$ such that $\text{supp } \alpha \cap \text{supp } \mathbf{d}\beta$ and $\text{supp } \alpha \cap \text{supp } \delta\beta$ are compact and where the pairing in the right-hand side is the one associated to forms living on ∂M .

1.3 Bounded Geometry and associated functional spaces

We introduce both the geometric setting and the Sobolev functional spaces that are extensively used in 2. We will follow mainly the discussion of [DDF19] and [GS13].

Definition 1.3.1. A Riemannian manifold (Σ, h) with empty boundary is called of bounded geometry if the injectivity radius² $r_{\text{inj}}(\Sigma) > 0$ and if $T\Sigma$ is of totally bounded curvature, that is $\|\nabla^k R\|_{L^\infty(M)} < \infty$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, R being the scalar curvature and ∇ the Levi-Civita connection associated with h .

In view of its definition, the injectivity radius of a manifold with non-empty boundary vanishes, hence we must regard $\partial\Sigma$ as a submanifold of an extension with empty boundary of the Riemannian manifold Σ . This requires a notion of bounded geometry for a generic submanifold.

²The injectivity radius $r_{\text{inj}}(p)$ at a point p of a Riemannian manifold is the largest radius for which the exponential map at p is a diffeomorphism. The injectivity radius of a Riemannian manifold is $r_{\text{inj}}(\Sigma) = \inf_{p \in \Sigma} r_{\text{inj}}(p)$.

Definition 1.3.2. Let (Σ, h) be a Riemannian manifold of bounded geometry and let $(Y, \iota_Y^* h)$ be a co-dimension k closed, embedded, smooth submanifold with an inward pointing, unit normal vector field ν . We say that $(Y, \iota_Y^* h)$ is a bounded geometry submanifold if the following holds:

- the second fundamental form K_Y of Y in Σ together with all its covariant derivatives on Y is bounded,
- there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that the map $\varphi : Y \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow \Sigma$ defined as $\varphi(p, z) = \exp_p(z\nu|_p)$ is injective, where \exp_p is the exponential map of Σ at p .

We are now ready to give the definition in case the boundary is non-empty.

Definition 1.3.3. An n -dimensional Riemannian manifold (Σ, h) with boundary is of bounded geometry if there exists an n -dimensional Riemannian manifold $(\widehat{\Sigma}, \widehat{h})$ (with empty boundary) of bounded geometry such that $\Sigma \subset \widehat{\Sigma}$, $h = \widehat{h}|_\Sigma$ and $(\partial\Sigma, \iota_{\partial\Sigma}^* \widehat{h})$ is a bounded geometry submanifold of $\widehat{\Sigma}$.

We remark that all Riemannian manifolds with compact boundary meet the requirements of the former Definition. At the same time one can also consider non-compact boundaries such as the n -dimensional half-space $\mathbb{R}_+^n = [0, +\infty) \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ endowed with the standard Euclidean metric.

1.3.1 Sobolev spaces

We consider a finite rank complex vector bundle $E \rightarrow \Sigma$ endowed with a fiberwise Hermitian product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_E$ and a product preserving connection ∇ built out of h . We say that a section $u \in \Gamma(E)$ is measurable if the function

$$\Sigma \ni x \mapsto \langle u(x), u(x) \rangle_E,$$

is measurable with respect to the measure $d\mu_h$ and we denote the space of equivalence classes of almost everywhere equal measurable sections of E with $\Gamma_{\text{me}}(E)$.

Definition 1.3.4. For all $\ell \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and $p \in (1, \infty)$, we define the Sobolev spaces

$$H_p^\ell \Gamma(E) = \left\{ u \in \Gamma_{\text{me}}(E) \mid \nabla^j u \in L^p(\Sigma, E \otimes T^* \Sigma^{\otimes j}), j \leq \ell \right\}. \quad (1.7)$$

In case $p = 2$ we denote the Sobolev spaces as $H^\ell \Gamma(E) := H_2^\ell \Gamma(E)$.

Whenever $E = \Lambda^k T^* \Sigma$, i.e. $\Gamma(E)$ is the space of differential k -forms, we will use the notation $\Omega^k(\Sigma) := \Gamma(\Lambda^k T^* \Sigma)$ (according to the definitions in Section 1.2) and $H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma) := H^\ell \Gamma(\Lambda^k T^* \Sigma)$.

Remark 1.3.5. The space $H^\ell\Gamma(E)$ is an Hilbert space endowed with the norm

$$\|u\|_{H^\ell\Gamma(E)}^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{\ell} \|\nabla^j u\|_{L^2(\Sigma, E \otimes T^*\Sigma^{\otimes j})}^2. \quad (1.8)$$

The theory of these space has been thoroughly studied in the literature and for the case in hand we refer mainly to [GS13].

Whenever a boundary is present, one can introduce the subspace $H_0^\ell\Gamma(E) \subset H^\ell\Gamma(E)$ defined as the completion of $\Gamma_c(E)$ (the space of compactly supported sections of E) with respect to the $H^\ell\Gamma(E)$ -norm. Whenever Σ is metric complete (for example, if Σ is a Riemannian manifold of bounded geometry, in particular if $\Sigma = \mathbb{R}^n$) the two spaces coincide: $H_0^\ell\Gamma(E) = H^\ell\Gamma(E)$.

1.3.2 Restrictions and trace maps for differential forms

Using *uniformly locally finite trivializations*, one can define, following [GS13, Def. 11], the real-exponent Sobolev spaces $H_p^s\Gamma(E)$, with $s \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proposition 1.3.6. *Let (Σ, h) be a Riemannian manifold of bounded geometry with boundary. Then for every $\ell \geq \frac{1}{2}$ there exists a continuous surjective map*

$$\text{res}_\ell : H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma) \rightarrow H^{\ell-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(\partial\Sigma), \quad (1.9)$$

that extends the restriction on $\Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$, i.e. $\text{res}_\ell \alpha = \alpha|_{\partial\Sigma}$ if $\alpha \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$.

Remark 1.3.7. In particular, according to [Geo79, p. 171] and [Wec04, Sec. 2], the tangential and normal maps defined in Definition 1.2.3 can be extended to continuous surjective maps

$$\text{t} \oplus \text{n} : H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma) \rightarrow H^{\ell-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(\partial\Sigma) \oplus H^{\ell-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(\partial\Sigma) \quad \forall \ell \geq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (1.10)$$

1.4 Green operators

In this section we will follow mainly [Bär15]. Let $E_1, E_2 \rightarrow M$ be vector bundles over a globally hyperbolic spacetime with $\partial M = \emptyset$. Let $P : C^\infty(M, E_1) \rightarrow C^\infty(M, E_2)$ be a linear differential operator.

Definition 1.4.1. *An advanced Green operator of P , or advanced fundamental solution for P , is a linear map $G^+ : C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C^\infty(M, E_1)$ such that*

- (i) $G^+P = \text{Id}_{C_c^\infty(M, E_1)}$,
- (ii) $PG^+ = \text{Id}_{C_c^\infty(M, E_2)}$,
- (iii) $\text{supp}(G^+f) \subset J^+(\text{supp } f)$, for all $f \in C_c^\infty(M, E_2)$.

Analogously, a linear map $G^- : C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C^\infty(M, E_1)$ is called a retarded Green operator of P , or retarded fundamental solution for P if (i) and (ii) hold, while it also holds

(iii') $\text{supp}(G^- f) \subset J^-(\text{supp } f)$, for all $f \in C_c^\infty(M, E_2)$.

Definition 1.4.2. The operator P is called Green hyperbolic if P and P^t possess advanced and retarded Green operator, where $P^t : C^\infty(M, E_2^*) \rightarrow C^\infty(M, E_1^*)$, known as the formal dual of P , is the unique linear differential operator such that

$$(\varphi, Pf)_M = (P^t \varphi, f)_M, \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \int_M \langle \varphi, Pf \rangle d\mu_g = \int_M \langle P^t \varphi, f \rangle d\mu_g, \quad (1.11)$$

for all $f \in C^\infty(M, E_1)$ and $\varphi \in C^\infty(M, E_2^*)$ such that $\text{supp } f \cap \text{supp } \varphi$ is compact.

Remark 1.4.3. If (M, g) has empty boundary, the Green operators of a Green hyperbolic operator P are unique, see [Bär15, Cor. 3.12]. If the spacetime has a boundary, the differential operators must be given together with boundary conditions. These conditions are encoded in the domain of the operator, that is replaced by the subset $C_{\text{b.c.}}^\infty(M, E_1) \subset C^\infty(M, E_1)$ of sections that satisfies the boundary conditions. Hence, in the case of non-empty boundary, the codomain $C^\infty(M, E_1)$ of G must be replaced, in Definitions 1.4.1 and 1.4.2, with the corresponding subspace $C_{\text{b.c.}}^\infty(M, E_1)$.

Example 1.4.4. An important example of Green-hyperbolic operators are the *wave operators*, or the *normally hyperbolic operators*. Locally they are of the form

$$P = g^{ij}(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^i \partial x^j} + a^j(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} + b(x), \quad (1.12)$$

where g^{ij} denote the components of the inverse metric tensor, while a_j and b are smooth functions of x . Physically relevant examples of such operators are the *d'Alembert wave operator* acting on scalars ($E_1 = E_2 = \mathbb{R}$) $P = \square$ and the *Klein-Gordon operator* $P = \square + m^2$, $m > 0$. Moreover, in case $E_1 = E_2 = \Lambda^k T^*M$, we have the *d'Alembert-De Rham-Beltrami operator* $P = \square_k = d\delta + \delta d$ acting on k -forms as well as the *Proca operator* $P = \delta d_k + m^2$ (for further discussions on the Proca field see [FP03]).

It is shown in [BGP15, Cor. 3.4.3] that (M, g) is a globally hyperbolic spacetime with empty boundary, wave operators as well as their formal duals (since they are wave operator themselves) have retarded and advanced Green operators. Hence, they are Green hyperbolic.

Definition 1.4.5. The operator $G := G^+ - G^- : C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C^\infty(M, E_1)$ is called the causal propagator or advanced minus retarded Green operator.

Remark 1.4.6. Recalling Definition 1.1.9 and the support properties of G^\pm in Definition 1.4.1, we see that Green operators of P are in fact linear maps between the following spaces:

$$G^+ : C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E_1), \quad (1.13)$$

$$G^- : C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E_1), \quad (1.14)$$

$$G : C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{sc}}^\infty(M, E_1). \quad (1.15)$$

Moreover, as shown in [Bär15, Thm. 3.8, Cor. 3.10, 3.11], there are unique continuous linear extensions of G^\pm :

$$\overline{G}_+ : C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{G}_- : C_{\text{fc}}^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{fc}}^\infty(M, E_1), \quad (1.16)$$

$$\tilde{G}_+ : C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{G}_- : C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E_2) \rightarrow C_{\text{sfc}}^\infty(M, E_1). \quad (1.17)$$

Proposition 1.4.7 (see Cor. 3.9, [Bär15]). *Let P be a Green hyperbolic operator. Then there are no nontrivial solutions $u \in C^\infty(M, E_1)$ of $Pu = 0$ with past-compact or future-compact support. In other words if u has past-compact or future-compact support, $Pu = 0$ implies $u = 0$. Moreover, for any $f \in C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E_2)$ or $f \in C_{\text{fc}}^\infty(M, E_2)$ there exists a unique $u \in C^\infty(M, E_1)$ solving $Pu = f$ and such that $\text{supp}(u) \subset J^+(\text{supp } f)$ or $\text{supp}(u) \subset J^-(\text{supp } f)$, respectively.*

Remark 1.4.8. The solutions u^\pm of the equation $Pu = f$ with different support properties discussed in the former Proposition are given explicitly by $u^\pm = G^\pm(f)$. Hence u^+ is the unique solution to the following initial value problem:

$$\begin{cases} Pu = f \text{ in } M, \ f \in C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E_2), \\ u|_\Sigma = 0, \end{cases} \quad (1.18)$$

where $\Sigma \xrightarrow{\iota} M$ is any Cauchy surface that lies in the past of $\text{supp } f$, i.e. $\iota(\Sigma) \subset J^-(\text{supp } f)$. Analogously u^- is the unique solution with vanishing final data on any Cauchy surface in the future of $f \in C_{\text{fc}}^\infty(M, E_2)$.

This discussion extends to the case of a spacetime with non-empty timelike boundary, particularly, Proposition 1.4.7 extends, provided the existence of Green operators for a specified boundary condition. In this case, for example $u^+ = G_{\text{b.c.}}^+(f)$ is the solution to the initial data/boundary value problem

$$\begin{cases} Pu = f \text{ in } M, \ f \in C_{\text{pc}}^\infty(M, E_2), \\ \text{boundary conditions on } \partial M, \\ u|_\Sigma = 0, \end{cases} \quad (1.19)$$

where, as before, Σ is any Cauchy surface such that $\Sigma \subset J^-(\text{supp } f)$.

The following is an important theorem that will be generalized in case of non-empty timelike boundary. (see [BG12, Thm. 3.5])

Theorem 1.4.9. *Let G be the causal propagator of a Green-hyperbolic operator P on a space-time with empty boundary. Then the following is an exact sequence:*

$$0 \longrightarrow C_c^\infty(M, E_1) \xrightarrow{P} C_c^\infty(M, E_2) \xrightarrow{G} C_{\text{sc}}^\infty(M, E_1) \xrightarrow{P} C_{\text{sc}}^\infty(M, E_2) \longrightarrow 0. \quad (1.20)$$

In the case of non-empty boundary, the existence of Green operators and all their properties must be proven for any suitable class of boundary conditions, and that will be the main focus of Chapters 2 and ?? when P is Maxwell operator.

Example 1.4.10. (Wave operator on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+$)

We consider the problem of the existence and the construction of advanced and retarded Green operators of $\square = -\partial_t^2 + \partial_x^2$ on $M = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+ \ni (t, x)$. Clearly M is a globally hyperbolic spacetime with timelike boundary, endowed with the usual Minkowski metric $\eta = -dt^2 + dx^2$. The boundary is the set $\{(t, 0), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Given some initial condition, the differential equation $\square u = f$, with $f \in C^\infty(M)$, is well posed (i.e. there exists a unique solution) provided one requires u to satisfy some suitable boundary conditions. We construct explicitly the Green operators for \square on M with Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions using the Green operators for \square on (\mathbb{R}^2, η) , whose existence is well known.

We define $\square_D : C_D^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$ and $\square_N : C_N^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$, with $C_D^\infty(M) := \{u \in C^\infty(M) \mid u|_{x=0} = 0\} = \Omega_t^0(M)$ and $C_N^\infty(M) := \{u \in C^\infty(M) \mid \partial_x u|_{x=0} = 0\}$. The problem is to find the following advanced and retarded Green operators

$$G_D^\pm : C_c^\infty(M) \rightarrow C_D^\infty(M), \quad G_N^\pm : C_c^\infty(M) \rightarrow C_N^\infty(M). \quad (1.21)$$

As stated in [Bär15, Ex. 3.4], advanced and retarded Green operators for \square on \mathbb{R}^2 exist and have the following explicit expression

$$G^\pm(f)(t, x) = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{J_{\mathbb{R}^2}^\mp(t, x)} f(s, y) \, ds \, dy. \quad (1.22)$$

This expression entails that the integral kernel of G^\pm (also known as Green function or fundamental solution) is $-\frac{1}{2}$ times the characteristic function of $\{(t, x, s, y) \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid (s, y) \in J^\mp(t, x)\}$. The ansatz, based on the method of images ([Jac99, p. 480]), is that the Dirichlet and Neumann

Green operators will be respectively of the form

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_D^\pm(f)(t, x) &= G^\pm(f)(t, x) - G^\pm(f)(t, -x) = \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \left[\int_{J_{\mathbb{R}^2}^\mp(t, x)} f(s, y) \, ds \, dy - \int_{J_{\mathbb{R}^2}^\mp(t, -x)} f(s, y) \, ds \, dy \right], \text{ for } (t, x) \in M, \\
 G_D^\pm(f)(t, x) &= G^\pm(f)(t, x) + G^\pm(f)(t, -x) = \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \left[\int_{J_{\mathbb{R}^2}^\mp(t, x)} f(s, y) \, ds \, dy + \int_{J_{\mathbb{R}^2}^\mp(t, -x)} f(s, y) \, ds \, dy \right], \text{ for } (t, x) \in M.
 \end{aligned}$$

It is a straightforward calculation to verify $G_{D/N}^\pm(f) \in C_{D/N}^\infty(M)$ (i.e. $G_D^\pm(f)(t, x)|_{x=0} = 0$ and $\partial_x G_D^\pm(f)(t, x)|_{x=0} = 0$), in addition the support properties still hold.

Focusing on the Dirichlet Green operators, they are constructed by imagining to extend the manifold M by reflection to be the entire \mathbb{R}^2 and, to enforce $G_D^\pm(f)$ to vanish on $x = 0$, add a negative reflected source $-f(t, -x)$. This gives the desired result.

1.5 Maxwell equations for k -forms with empty boundary

We focus our attention on a m -dimensional spacetime (M, g) with empty boundary. Classically, electromagnetism is the theory of electric and magnetic fields E, B encoded in the Faraday 2-form F . The equations for $F \in \Omega^2(M)$ read

$$\begin{aligned}
 dF &= 0, \\
 \delta F &= -J,
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.23}$$

where J is the co-exact current 1-form, which encodes the current conservation laws. Indeed, if M is static with $M = \mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$, the decomposition $F = B + dt \wedge E$ holds, where $E \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \Omega^1(\Sigma))$ and $B \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \Omega^2(\Sigma))$, in agreement with the fact that the magnetic field B is usually referred to as a *pseudo-vector*.

The first equation imposes a geometric constraint: it ensures that the 2-form F is closed. Hence, in virtue of Poincaré lemma, whenever the second de Rham cohomology group $H^2(M)$ (see [A.1](#)) is trivial, there exists a global 1-form A such that $F = dA$. One can object that the choice of $A \in \Omega^1(M)$ is not unique. Indeed if we assume M to be globally hyperbolic with empty boundary, the configuration $A' := A + d\chi$, $\chi \in \Omega^0(M)$ is equivalent to A since it gives rise to the same Faraday tensor F . This freedom in the choice of A is extensively used and it is called **gauge freedom** or gauge invariance. In this case A, A' are said to be gauge-equivalent.

Thanks to gauge invariance we can therefore first write Maxwell equations for A as $\delta dA = -J$. Subsequently, taken any fixed $A \in \Omega^1(M)$, and imposing the so-called **Lorenz gauge**, one

can substitute the problem $\delta dA = -J$ with the following hyperbolic system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \square A = -J, \\ \delta A = 0. \end{cases} \quad (1.24)$$

where $\square = \delta d + d\delta$ is the wave operator. Moreover the second equation can be seen as a constraint called the *Lorenz gauge condition*. This system can be obtained by requiring a 1-form A' , gauge-equivalent to A , to satisfy the Lorenz gauge condition $\delta A' = 0$. This is always possible in a globally hyperbolic spacetime with empty boundary since the equation $\square \chi = \delta A$ has always at least a solution $\chi \in \Omega^0(M)$ for any fixed $A \in \Omega^1(M)$.

One could argue that the most general possible gauge transformation between A and A' is of the form $A' = A + \omega$ for a closed form $\omega \in \Omega^1(M)$. That is certainly true in the sense that the equations of motion (1.23) are unchanged by this transformation. Anyway we will refer to gauge-invariance exclusively in the sense previously defined since electromagnetism can be seen as an abelian **gauge theory** with structure group $U(1)$. In this framework, the classical vector potential A is a principal connection on a principal $U(1)$ -bundle E over M (for more details see [Nak90, Ch. 10]). Then we identify (this choice is non-unique) the connection A with a 1-form $A \in \Omega^1(M)$. Locally, this principal connection can be expressed as an $U(1)$ -valued operator $D = d + A$ and the Faraday field can be recovered as the curvature of this connection: $F = D \circ D$. A gauge transformation for A in this context is of the form

$$A' = g^{-1} A g - i g^{-1} dg, \quad (1.25)$$

for any $g \in C^\infty(M, U(1))$. If now we express $g = e^{i\chi}$, for $\chi \in \Omega^0(M)$, we recover the transformation $A' := A + d\chi$.

From a physical point of view, one wonders whether it is A or it is F the observable field of the dynamical system. Hence one can regard electromagnetism as a theory for $F \in \Omega^2(M)$ or as a theory for a non-unique $A \in \Omega^1(M)$ wondering whether the initial and boundary value problem for Maxwell equations is well-posed in both cases. The former case will be covered in Chapter 2 and the latter in Chapter ??.

In many, but not all, practical physical situations, the triviality of $H^2(M)$ ensures that description of electromagnetism in terms of F or of A is completely indistinguishable. There is in fact one particular physical effect that enlightens the true nature of electromagnetism as a theory for the potential 1-form A : this is the so-called *Aharonov-Bohm effect*. To discuss this effect we refer mostly to [DHS19, Ex. 3.1]. Consider indeed as a globally hyperbolic spacetime M the Cauchy development in the 4-dimensional Minkowski spacetime \mathbb{M}^4 of the time-fixed hypersurface $\{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^3$ with a cylinder surrounding the z -axis (which is given in cylindrical coordinates (t, r, φ, z) by $r \leq 1$) removed. The removed cylinder represents an infinitely long coil with

a current running through it whose magnetic flux Φ gives rise outside the coil to a vanishing Faraday tensor F but also to a non-vanishing vector potential given in very good approximation by $A_\Phi = \frac{\Phi}{2\pi} d\varphi$.

In the Aharonov-Bohm experiment one sends quantum particles from one side to the other of the coil and measures a quantum phase shift proportional to the integral of A_Φ around a circular path that embraces the cylinder (see [PT89] for an experimental description). This setup shows that even if the Faraday tensor F vanishes outside the coil, there still is a measurable physical effect which depends on the vector potential A_Φ , which appears to be the true observable field. In particular this effect happens because A_Φ is closed, but not exact in M . Moreover A_Φ is not gauge equivalent to 0. From a topological point of view this corresponds to the fact that the first de Rham cohomology group $H^1(M) \neq \{0\}$. Indeed $H^1(M)$ is spanned just by the vector potential $d\varphi$. Whenever $H^1(M)$ is trivial, the two descriptions with F and A are indistinguishable. For further discussions, see [BDHS14].

In the homogeneous case ($J = 0$), one can generalize the Maxwell field to be $F \in \Omega^k(M)$, imposing $dF = 0$ and $\delta F = 0$ and the equation for $A \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ becomes $\delta dA = 0$. In this case gauge freedom is understood as a transformation $A \mapsto A + d\chi$, $\chi \in \Omega^{k-2}(M)$. It is worth noticing that in case $k = 0$ and $k = m$, the equations $\delta F = 0$ and $dF = 0$ become, respectively, trivial.

The next chapters will be devoted to tackle the problem of well-posedness of electromagnetism equations when the spacetime has non-empty timelike boundary.

Chapter 2

Maxwell equations with interface conditions

As outlined in Section 1.5, the form of Maxwell equations allows us to use both F and A as variables with which we can describe electromagnetic phenomena. Whenever the second cohomology group $H^2(M)$ is trivial, the two theories are equivalent, since $F = dA$.

In this chapter, we regard $F \in \Omega^2(M)$ as the physical dynamical variable which describes electromagnetism. This is not always true, whenever the first cohomology group with integer coefficients is non-trivial, as previously discussed in Section 1.5. The aim of this chapter is to present a technique which allows to characterize, in a class of manifolds with the presence of an interface between two media, the existence of fundamental solutions for Maxwell equations, written in terms of the Faraday form $F \in \Omega^2(M)$. The presence of an interface on the one hand generalizes the idea of a timelike boundary, allowing to recover the geometric setting outlined in Chapter 1 if one side of the interface is a perfect insulator. On the other hand, in order to make use of geometric techniques such as Hodge decomposition, we will have to make several geometric assumptions which ensure global hyperbolicity, but unfortunately they lead to a loss in generality.

2.1 Geometrical setup

The physical and practical situation we want to approach is that of a manifold split into two parts, filled with two media, each of them with different electromagnetic properties. The two media will be separated by an hypersurface, on which our aim will be that of putting *jump conditions*.

We consider a globally hyperbolic, standard static Lorentzian manifold (M, g) with **empty boundary**, such that M can be decomposed as $\mathbb{R} \times \Sigma$, where the Cauchy hypersurface (Σ, h) is assumed to be a complete, connected, odd-dimensional, **closed** Riemannian manifold. Under these conditions, Σ is of *bounded geometry* (see 1.3.1). In this chapter, we denote with d_M, δ_M the differential and co-differential over M , while d, δ denote those over Σ .

Maxwell equations read

$$d_M F = 0, \quad \delta_M F = 0, \quad F \in \Omega^2(M). \quad (2.1)$$

The geometrical assumptions on M allow us to split F into its electric and magnetic components

$$F = \star_\Sigma B + dt \wedge E, \quad (2.2)$$

where $E, B \in \Omega^1(\Sigma)$ while \star_Σ is the Hodge dual on Σ . Maxwell equations reduce to

$$\partial_t E - \text{curl} B = 0, \quad \partial_t B + \text{curl} E = 0, \quad (2.3a)$$

$$\text{div}(E) = \text{div}(B) = 0, \quad (2.3b)$$

where $\text{div} = \delta$ is the co-differential on Σ , while curl is defined in Equation (2.39) – in particular $\text{curl} = \star_\Sigma d$ if $\dim \Sigma = 3$.

To model the presence of an interface that divides M in two distinct regions, we consider Z a codimension 1 smooth embedded hypersurface of Σ .

In this setting we consider Maxwell equations with Z -interface boundary conditions, that is we allow discontinuities to occur on $\mathbb{R} \times Z$. Hence, we split $\Sigma = \Sigma_+ \cup \Sigma_-$, such that

$$\Sigma_Z := \Sigma \setminus Z = \mathring{\Sigma}_+ \cup \mathring{\Sigma}_-, \quad (2.4)$$

and we refer to Σ_- (*resp.* Σ_+) as the left (*resp.* right) component of Σ . Moreover, Σ_\pm are compact manifolds with boundary $\partial \Sigma_\pm = Z$, and the orientation on Z induced by Σ_+ is the opposite of the one induced by Σ_- . Hence, the manifolds $(\mathbb{R} \times \Sigma_\pm, g = -dt^2 + h)$ are **globally hyperbolic spacetimes with timelike boundary**, which is $\mathbb{R} \times Z$.

Whenever the interface $Z \neq \emptyset$ the system (2.3) has to be modified, in particular the non-dynamical equations (2.3b) involving the divergence operator div have to be suitably interpreted – *cf.* Subsection 2.2.4. In particular one expects that the condition $\text{div}(E) = \text{div}(B) = 0$ should be read at a distributional level, leading to a constraint on the values at Z of the normal component of E . In addition, the dynamical equations (2.3a) have to be combined with boundary conditions at the interface Z – *cf.* [Jac99, Sec. I.5].

In what follows we will state the precise meaning of the problem (2.3) with interface Z with the help of Hodge theory and of Lagrangian subspaces [EM99, EM03, EM05].

2.2 Constraint equations: Hodge theory with interface

In this section we present a Hodge decomposition on the closed Riemannian manifold (Σ, h) with interface Z . This generalizes the known results on classical Hodge decomposition on manifolds possibly with non-empty boundary [Ama17, AM04, Gaf55, Gro91, Kod49, Li09, Sch95, Sco95,

ZS00].

Hodge theory is a generalization of Helmholtz decomposition. The latter was formulated as a splitting of vector fields into vortices and gradients, which can be understood as a rudimentary form of what is now called the *Hodge decomposition*. The idea behind Helmholtz decomposition is that any vector **field** in \mathbb{R}^3 can be read as a sum of an irrotational field \mathbf{U} , i.e. such that $\text{curl } \mathbf{U} = d\mathbf{U} = 0$, and a solenoidal field \mathbf{V} , i.e. such that $\text{div } \mathbf{V} = \delta\mathbf{V} = 0$. In other words, for $\mathbf{F} \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}^3)$, one can **write**

$$\mathbf{F} = -\nabla\Phi + \text{curl } \mathbf{A}. \quad (2.5)$$

In what follows $L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma)$ will denote the space of k -forms (see Section 1.2) which are square integrable with respect to the pairing induced by the metric h

$$(\alpha, \beta)_\Sigma := \int_\Sigma \bar{\alpha} \wedge \star_\Sigma \beta, \quad (2.6)$$

where \star_Σ is the Hodge dual on Σ .

Remark 2.2.1. In agreement with Remark 1.2.1, we denote with $\Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$ the space of smooth and compactly supported k -forms. Moreover, since Σ is of bounded geometry, for $\ell \geq \frac{1}{2}$, we use the Sobolev spaces $H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma)$ and $H_0^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma)$ of k -forms as defined in Definition 1.3.4 and in Subsection 1.3.2.

If Σ is compact, $\Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$ coincides with the space of smooth k -forms $\Omega^k(\Sigma)$, but we will still use $\Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$ in view of possible generalizations. In addition, we remark that $H^{-\ell}\Omega^k(\Sigma) = H_0^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma)^*$, where $*$ indicates the dual with respect to the scalar product $(\cdot, \cdot)_\Sigma$.

The Hodge theorem for a closed manifold Σ states that there is an L^2 -orthogonal decomposition

$$L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) = dH^1\Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma) \oplus \delta H^1\Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma) \oplus \ker(\Delta)_{H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma)}, \quad (2.7)$$

where $\Delta = d\delta + \delta d$ is the Laplace operator and $\ker(\Delta)_{H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma)}$ denotes the space of *harmonic forms*. If Σ has an empty boundary, the space of harmonic forms coincides with that of **harmonic fields**, $\ker(\delta)_{H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma)} \cap \ker(d)_{H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma)}$ (see [Kod49] and [Sch95]). The last result can be stated as follows and it is very easy to prove.

Proposition 2.2.2. *Let $\alpha \in H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma)$, where Σ is a closed manifold. Then $\Delta\alpha = 0$ if and only if $d\alpha = 0$ and $\delta\alpha = 0$.*

Proof. If $d\alpha = 0$ and $\delta\alpha = 0$, $\Delta\alpha = 0$. On the other hand if $\Delta\alpha = 0$,

$$0 = (\Delta\alpha, \alpha)_\Sigma = ((d\delta + \delta d)\alpha, \alpha)_\Sigma = (d\delta\alpha, \alpha)_\Sigma + (\delta d\alpha, \alpha)_\Sigma = \quad (2.8)$$

$$= (\delta\alpha, \delta\alpha)_\Sigma + (d\alpha, d\alpha)_\Sigma = \|\delta\alpha\|^2 + \|d\alpha\|^2. \quad (2.9)$$

So both $d\alpha = 0$ and $\delta\alpha = 0$. □

2.2.1 Hodge decomposition on compact manifold with non-empty boundary

For a compact manifold Σ with non-empty boundary $\partial\Sigma$ the decomposition (2.7) requires a slight adjustment and harmonic forms do not coincide with harmonic fields anymore. Because of boundary terms, $\ker \Delta$ no longer coincides with the closed and co-closed forms. It turns out that every harmonic field is a harmonic form, but the converse is false. To show this, consider the following example.

Example 2.2.3. Let U be a bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^2 , endowed with the standard Euclidean metric. On U , the 1-form $\omega = x \, dy$ is harmonic, since its second derivatives vanish, but $\omega \notin \ker d$, since

$$d(x \, dy) = \partial_x x \, dx \wedge dy + \partial_y x \, dy \wedge dy = dx \wedge dy.$$

ω is though in $\ker \delta$ as $\star d \star (x \, dy) = \star d(x \, dx) = 0$.

Definition 2.2.4. We call $\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ the L^2 -closure of the space of harmonic fields

$$\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma) = \overline{\{\omega \in H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid d\omega = 0, \delta\omega = 0\}}. \quad (2.10)$$

With a slight abuse of notation, we will refer to the elements of $\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ as harmonic fields

In fact, the space of harmonic fields is infinite dimensional and the spaces $dH^1\Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma)$, $\delta H^1\Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma)$, $\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ are not orthogonal unless suitable boundary conditions are imposed. Therefore, one has to give a precise meaning to the boundary value of a differential form. Since differential forms are not scalar quantities, one can define a normal and a tangential projection along the boundary.

Remark 2.2.5. We recall that the tangential and normal traces t and n of a differential form are defined according to Definition 1.2.3 and are extended as in Subsection 1.3.2 to continuous surjective maps as in Equation (1.10), that we recall for completeness:

$$t \oplus n: H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma) \rightarrow H^{\ell-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(\partial\Sigma) \oplus H^{\ell-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(\partial\Sigma) \quad \forall \ell \geq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (2.11)$$

Next, we present the Hodge decomposition for compact manifolds with boundary, a proof of which can be found at [Sch95, Thm. 2.4.2].

Theorem 2.2.6. Let (Σ, h) be a compact, connected, Riemannian manifold with non-empty boundary

1. For all $\omega \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(\Sigma)$ and $\eta \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$ it holds

$$(d\omega, \eta)_\Sigma - (\omega, \delta\eta)_\Sigma = (t\omega, n\eta)_{\partial\Sigma}, \quad (2.12)$$

where $(\cdot, \cdot)_\Sigma$ has been defined in Equation (2.6) while $(\cdot, \cdot)_{\partial\Sigma}$ is defined similarly. Equation (2.12) still holds true for $\omega \in H^\ell \Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma)$ and $\eta \in H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma)$.

2. The Hilbert space $L^2 \Omega^k(\Sigma)$ of square integrable k -forms splits in the L^2 -orthogonal direct sum

$$L^2 \Omega^k(\Sigma) = dH^1 \Omega_t^k(\Sigma) \oplus \delta H^1 \Omega_n^{k+1}(\Sigma) \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma), \quad (2.13)$$

where $\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ is defined per Equation (2.10) while, in view of Equation (1.4)

$$H^1 \Omega_t^{k-1}(\Sigma) := \{\alpha \in H^1 \Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma) \mid t\alpha = 0\}, \quad (2.14)$$

$$H^1 \Omega_n^{k+1}(\Sigma) := \{\beta \in H^1 \Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma) \mid n\beta = 0\}. \quad (2.15)$$

Remark 2.2.7. The previous decomposition generalizes to Sobolev spaces, in particular for all $\ell \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ we have

$$H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma) = dH^{\ell+1} \Omega_t^k(\Sigma) \oplus \delta H^{\ell+1} \Omega_n^{k+1}(\Sigma) \oplus H^\ell \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma), \quad (2.16)$$

where $H^\ell \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma) = \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma) \cap H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma)$, since $H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma) \hookrightarrow L^2 \Omega^k(\Sigma)$.

2.2.2 Hodge decomposition for compact manifold with interface

In this section we generalize Theorem 2.2.6 to the case of a closed Riemannian manifold Σ together with an interface Z . As starting point, we need to distinguish between regular k -forms which are defined on the whole manifold, and hence continuous, and pairs of forms which are regular separately on the two sides Σ_\pm and are allowed to be discontinuous on Z .

Definition 2.2.8. We call

$$\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z) := \Omega^k(\Sigma_+) \oplus \Omega^k(\Sigma_-), \quad (2.17)$$

where it is understood that the pair $\omega + \eta \in \Omega^k(\Sigma_+) \oplus \Omega^k(\Sigma_-)$ identifies an element $\alpha \in \Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ such that $\alpha|_{\Sigma_+} = \omega$ and $\alpha|_{\Sigma_-} = \eta$.

Following the previous definition,

$$\Omega_c^k(\Sigma_Z) = \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_+) \oplus \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_-). \quad (2.18)$$

This implies $\omega \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_Z)$ if and only if ω is a smooth k -form in Σ_Z and $\text{supp}_\Sigma \omega := \overline{\{x \in \Sigma_Z \mid \omega(x) \neq 0\}}^\Sigma$ is compact. Hence, forms in $\Omega_c^k(\Sigma_Z)$ have support overlapping with the interface, where they are allowed to be discontinuous.

Observe that Theorem 2.2.6 applies to both $L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma_\pm)$. In addition, since Z has zero measure the space of square integrable k -forms splits as

$$L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) = L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z) = L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma_+) \oplus L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma_-). \quad (2.19)$$

We expect that a counterpart of (2.13) holds true, though $H^1\Omega_t^{k-1}(\Sigma)$, $H^1\Omega_n^{k-1}(\Sigma)$ ought to be replaced by suitable jump conditions across Z . To this end, notice that the splitting (2.19) does not generalize to the Sobolev spaces $H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma)$, in particular

$$H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma) \hookrightarrow H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z) = H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma_+) \oplus H^\ell\Omega^k(\Sigma_-), \quad (2.20)$$

is a proper inclusion. Indeed, consider any regular form ω in Σ_Z which has $[t\omega] \neq 0$. In this case ω can not have square integrable (weak) derivatives, since a non-vanishing jump gives rise to a distributional derivative which is proportional to the Dirac delta.

Definition 2.2.9. Let (Σ, h) be an oriented, compact, Riemannian manifold with interface $Z \hookrightarrow \Sigma$. Moreover let (Σ_\pm, h_\pm) the oriented, compact Riemannian manifolds with boundary $\partial\Sigma_\pm = Z$ such that $\Sigma_Z := \Sigma \setminus Z = \Sigma_+ \cup \Sigma_-$. For $\omega \in \Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ we define the tangential jump $[t\omega] \in \Omega^k(Z)$ and normal jump $[n\omega] \in \Omega^{k-1}(Z)$ across Z by

$$[t\omega] := t_+\omega - t_-\omega, \quad [n\omega] := n_+\omega - n_-\omega, \quad (2.21)$$

where t_\pm, n_\pm denote the tangential and normal map on Σ_\pm as per Definition 1.2.3.

Remark 2.2.10. The tangential and normal traces t_\pm, n_\pm as well as the tangential and normal jump extend by continuity on $H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ and are surjective if the codomain is $H^{\ell-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(Z)$ - cf. Remark 2.2.5. As a consequence of Definition 2.2.9 it holds that

$$H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma) = \{\omega \in H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z) \mid [t\omega] = 0, [n\omega] = 0\}. \quad (2.22)$$

An analogous equality does not hold for $\Omega^k(\Sigma)$ because it would require traces of higher order derivatives to match at Z .

Theorem 2.2.11. Let (Σ, h) be an oriented, compact, Riemannian manifold with interface Z . Moreover let (Σ_\pm, h_\pm) be the oriented, compact Riemannian manifolds with boundary $\partial\Sigma_\pm = Z$ such that $\Sigma \setminus Z = \overset{\circ}{\Sigma}_+ \cup \overset{\circ}{\Sigma}_-$.

1. For all $\omega \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ and $\eta \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_Z)$ it holds

$$(d\omega, \eta)_Z - (\omega, \delta\eta)_Z = ([t\omega], n_+\eta)_Z - (t_-\omega, [n\eta])_Z, \quad (2.23)$$

where $(\cdot, \cdot)_Z$ is the scalar product between forms on Z - cf. Equation (2.6) - while t_\pm, n_\pm are the tangential and normal maps on Σ_\pm as per Definition 1.2.3. Equation (2.23) still

holds true for $\omega \in H^\ell \Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ and $\eta \in H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ for all $\ell \geq 1$.

2. The Hilbert space $L^2 \Omega^k(\Sigma)$ of square integrable k -forms splits into the L^2 -orthogonal direct sum

$$L^2 \Omega^k(\Sigma) = dH^1 \Omega_{[t]}^k(\Sigma_Z) \oplus \delta H^1 \Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z) \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma), \quad (2.24)$$

where $\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ is defined per Equation (2.10), while

$$H^1 \Omega_{[t]}^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z) := \{\alpha \in H^1 \Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z) \mid [t\alpha] = 0\}, \quad (2.25)$$

$$H^1 \Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z) := \{\beta \in H^1 \Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z) \mid [n\beta] = 0\}. \quad (2.26)$$

Proof. Equation (2.23) is an immediate consequence of (2.12). In particular for $\omega \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ and $\eta \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_Z)$ we decompose $\omega = \omega_+ + \omega_-$ and $\eta = \eta_+ + \eta_-$ where $\omega_\pm \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(\Sigma_\pm)$ and $\eta_\pm \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_\pm)$. (Notice that we have $t_\pm \omega = t_\pm \omega_\pm$.) Applying Equation (2.12) it holds

$$\begin{aligned} (d\omega, \eta) - (\omega, \delta\eta) &= \sum_{\pm} ((d\omega_\pm, \eta_\pm) - (\omega_\pm, \delta\eta_\pm)) = \int_Z t_+ \bar{\omega} \wedge \star_Z n_+ \eta - \int_Z t_- \bar{\omega} \wedge \star_Z n_- \eta \\ &= \int_Z [t\bar{\omega}] \wedge \star_Z n_+ \eta - \int_Z t_- \bar{\omega} \wedge \star_Z [n\beta]. \end{aligned}$$

A density argument leads to the same identity for $\omega \in H^\ell \Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ and $\eta \in H^\ell \Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ for $\ell \geq 1$. We prove the splitting (2.24). The spaces $dH^1 \Omega_{[t]}^k(\Sigma_Z)$, $\delta H^1 \Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z)$, $\mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ are orthogonal because of Equation (2.23). Let ω be in the orthogonal complement of $dH^1 \Omega_{[t]}^k(\Sigma_Z) \oplus \delta H^1 \Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z)$. We wish to show that $\omega \in \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$. We split $\omega = \omega_+ + \omega_-$ with $\omega_\pm \in L^2 \Omega^k(\Sigma_\pm)$, we apply Theorem 2.2.6 to each component so that

$$\omega = \sum_{\pm} (d\alpha_\pm + \delta\beta_\pm + \kappa_\pm),$$

where $\alpha_\pm \in H^1 \Omega_t^{k-1}(\Sigma_\pm)$, $\beta_\pm \in H^1 \Omega_n^{k+1}(\Sigma_\pm)$ and $\kappa_\pm \in \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma_\pm)$. Let $\hat{\alpha} \in H^1 \Omega_t^{k-1}(\Sigma_+)$: This identifies an element of $\Omega_{[t]}^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ by considering its extension to zero on Σ_- . Since $\omega \in [dH^1 \Omega_{[t]}^k(\Sigma_Z)]^\perp$ we have $0 = (d\hat{\alpha}, \omega) = (d\hat{\alpha}, d\alpha_+)$, thus $d\alpha_+ = 0$ by the arbitrariness of $\hat{\alpha}$. With a similar argument we have $\alpha_- = 0$ as well as $\beta_\pm = 0$.

Therefore $\omega \in \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma_Z)$. In order to prove that $\omega \in \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ we need to show that $[t\omega] = 0$ as well as $[n\omega] = 0$ – cf. Remark 2.2.10. This is a consequence of $\omega \in [dH^1 \Omega_{[t]}^k(\Sigma_Z) \oplus \delta H^1 \Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z)]^\perp$. Indeed, let $\alpha \in H^1 \Omega_{[t]}^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$. Applying Equation (2.23) we find

$$0 = (d\alpha, \omega) = - \int_Z t_- \bar{\alpha} \wedge \star_Z [n\omega]. \quad (2.27)$$

The arbitrariness of $t_- \alpha$, t_- being surjective, implies $[n\omega] = 0$. Similarly $[t\omega] = 0$ follows by $\omega \perp \delta H^1 \Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z)$. \square

Remark 2.2.12. The harmonic part of decomposition (2.24) contains harmonic k -forms which are continuous across the interface Z – cf. Remark 2.2.10. One can also consider a decomposition which allows for a discontinuous harmonic component. In particular it can be shown that

$$L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) = dH^1\Omega_t^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z) \oplus \delta H^1\Omega_n^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z) \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma_Z),$$

where now $H^1\Omega_t^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ is the subspace of $H^1\Omega_{[t]}^{k-1}(\Sigma_Z)$ made of $(k-1)$ -forms α such that $t_\pm\omega = 0$ and similarly $\beta \in H^1\Omega_n^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z)$ if and only if $\beta \in H^1\Omega_{[n]}^{k+1}(\Sigma_Z)$ and $n_\pm\beta = 0$.

2.2.3 Further perspectives on Hodge decomposition

The results of Theorem 2.2.6 can be generalized. In 1949, Kodaira (see [Kod49]) proved a weak L^2 orthogonal decomposition, for any (non-compact) Riemannian manifold (M, g) with no boundary, of the form

$$L^2\Omega^k(M) = \overline{d\Omega_c^{k-1}(M)} \oplus \overline{\delta\Omega_c^{k+1}(M)} \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(M). \quad (2.28)$$

Gromov, in [Gro91], proved that under the assumption that the Laplacian has a spectral gap in $L^2\Omega^k(M)$, i.e. there is no spectrum of Δ in an open interval $(0, \eta)$, with $\eta > 0$, the following strong L^2 -orthogonal decomposition holds for any (non-compact) Riemannian manifold (M, g) with empty boundary:

$$L^2\Omega^k(M) = dH^1\Omega^{k-1}(M) \oplus \delta H^1\Omega^{k+1}(M) \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(M). \quad (2.29)$$

For the case $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, the paper by Amar, [Ama17], recovers a strong L^p decomposition for complete non-compact manifolds, while both [Li09] and [ZS00] prove the strong L^p decomposition within the framework of weighted Sobolev spaces. [Sco95] discusses instead a strong L^p -decomposition on compact manifolds. Finally, using weighted Sobolev spaces, Schwartz [Sch95] extends to the Hodge decomposition on non-compact manifolds with non-empty boundary whenever M is the complement of an open bounded domain in \mathbb{R}^n .

The papers by [AM04, Gaf55] are devoted to developing the Hodge decomposition from the point of view of the theory of Hilbert space, thus arriving at it without the use of differential equation theory as in [Sch95]. For the case of a non-compact Riemannian manifold Σ one may follow the results of [AM04] in order to achieve the following weak-Hodge decomposition – cf. Equation (2.13). We consider the operators d_t, δ_n

$$\text{dom}(d_t) := \{\omega \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid d\omega \in L^2\Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma), t\omega = 0\} \quad d_t\omega := d\omega, \quad (2.30)$$

$$\text{dom}(\delta_n) := \{\omega \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid \delta\omega \in L^2\Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma), n\omega = 0\} \quad \delta_n\omega := \delta\omega. \quad (2.31)$$

Notice that d_t as well as δ_n are nilpotent because of the relations (1.5). These operators are closed and from Equation (2.12) it follows that their adjoints are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dom}(d) &:= \{\omega \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid d\omega \in L^2\Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma)\}, & \delta_n^* &= d, \\ \text{dom}(\delta) &:= \{\omega \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid \delta\omega \in L^2\Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma)\}, & d_t^* &= \delta. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $(\overline{\text{Ran}(d_t)} \oplus \overline{\text{Ran}(\delta_n)})^\perp = \overline{\ker(d)} \cap \ker \delta = \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$ so that

$$L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) = \overline{\text{Ran}(d_t)} \oplus \overline{\text{Ran}(\delta_n)} \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma). \quad (2.32)$$

Following the same steps of the proof of Theorem 2.2.11 it descends that a similar weak-Hodge decomposition holds for the case of non-compact Riemannian manifolds Σ with interface Z :

$$L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) = \overline{\text{Ran}(d_{[t]})} \oplus \overline{\text{Ran}(\delta_{[n]})} \oplus \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma), \quad (2.33)$$

where $d_{[t]}, \delta_{[n]}$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dom}(d_{[t]}) &:= \{\omega \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid d\omega \in L^2\Omega^{k+1}(\Sigma), [t\omega] = 0\} & d_{[t]}\omega &:= d\omega, \\ \text{dom}(\delta_{[n]}) &:= \{\omega \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma) \mid \delta\omega \in L^2\Omega^{k-1}(\Sigma), [n\omega] = 0\} & \delta_{[n]}\omega &:= \delta\omega. \end{aligned}$$

It holds $d_{[t]}^* = \delta_{[n]}$ as well as $\delta_{[n]}^* = d_{[t]}$ so that in particular $\ker d_{[t]}^* \cap \ker \delta_{[n]} = \mathcal{H}^k(\Sigma)$.

2.2.4 Non-dynamical Maxwell equations

The Hodge decomposition with interface proved in Theorem 2.2.11 can be exploited to formulate the correct generalization of the non-dynamical components of Maxwell equations (2.3b) as follows.

We interpret the constraint $\text{div } E = \delta E = 0$ (and analogously $\text{div } B = 0$) in a distributional sense. Recalling Stokes' theorem in Equation 1.6, we can write formally:

$$(d\psi, E)_{\Sigma_\pm} = (\psi, \delta E)_{\Sigma_\pm} + (t\psi, nE)_{\partial\Sigma_\pm}, \quad \text{for } \psi \in H^1\Omega^0(\Sigma). \quad (2.34)$$

By a formal manipulation one obtains that, if $\text{supp } \psi \cap Z \neq \emptyset$,

$$\begin{aligned} (d\psi, E)_\Sigma &= (d\psi, E)_{\Sigma_+} + (d\psi, E)_{\Sigma_-} = \\ &= (\psi, \delta E)_{\Sigma_+} + (t\psi, n_+ E)_Z + (\psi, \delta E)_{\Sigma_-} - (t\psi, n_- E)_Z = \\ &= (\psi, \delta E)_\Sigma + (t\psi, [nE])_Z. \end{aligned} \quad (2.35)$$

Definition 2.2.13. We say that $E \in H^1\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)$ satisfies $\delta E = 0$ weakly if both *therms* of the right hand side of Equation (2.35) vanish for any $\psi \in H^1\Omega^0(\Sigma) \equiv H^1\Omega_{[t]}^0(\Sigma_Z)$, i.e.

$$(d\psi, E)_\Sigma = 0, \quad \text{for any } \psi \in H^1\Omega_{[t]}^0(\Sigma_Z). \quad (2.36)$$

In view of the previous definition, in what follows we will replace equations (2.3b) with the requirement

$$E, B \perp dH^1\Omega_{[t]}^0(\Sigma_Z). \quad (2.37)$$

Notice that, because of Equation (2.35), this entails $\delta E = \delta B = 0$ pointwisely in Σ_{\pm} as well as $[nE] = [nB] = 0$. Configurations of the electric field E in presence of a charge density ρ on Σ_{\pm} and a surface charge density σ over Z are described by expanding $E = d\alpha + \delta\beta + \kappa$ and demanding $\alpha \in H^1\Omega_{[t]}^0(\Sigma_Z)$ to satisfy

$$(d\varphi, d\alpha)_{\Sigma} = (\varphi, \rho)_{\Sigma} + (t\varphi, \sigma)_Z \quad \forall \varphi \in C_c^{\infty}(\Sigma).$$

This provides a weak formulation for the electrostatic boundary problem. For sufficiently regular α this is equivalent to the Poisson problem $\Delta_{\Sigma}\alpha = \rho$, $[nd\alpha] = \sigma$, recovering the classical equations outlined in [Jac99, Sec. I.5].

2.3 Dynamical equations: Lagrangian subspaces

In this section we will discuss the dynamical equations (2.3a). They can be written in a Schrödinger-like form as a complex evolution equation, solutions can be found imposing suitable interface conditions on Z .

$$i\partial_t\psi = H\psi \quad \psi := \begin{bmatrix} E \\ B \end{bmatrix}, \quad H := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \operatorname{curl} \\ -i \operatorname{curl} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2.38)$$

Here we adopt the convention of [Bär19] according to which

$$\operatorname{curl} := i \star_{\Sigma} d \quad \text{if } \dim \Sigma = 1 \pmod{4}, \quad \operatorname{curl} := \star_{\Sigma} d \quad \text{if } \dim \Sigma = 3 \pmod{4}. \quad (2.39)$$

With this convention curl is formally a selfadjoint operator on $\Omega_c^1(\Sigma)$.

As outlined in Section 2.2 we consider Equation (2.38) on Σ_Z , allowing for jump discontinuities across the interface Z . To this end we regard H as a densely defined operator on the Cartesian product

$$L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma) \times L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma) =: L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2} = L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2} \quad (2.40)$$

(the former equality follows from Equation (2.19)) with domain

$$\operatorname{dom}(H) := \Omega_{cc}^1(\Sigma_+)^{\times 2} \oplus \Omega_{cc}^1(\Sigma_-)^{\times 2}, \quad (2.41)$$

where $\Omega_{\text{cc}}^1(\Sigma_{\pm})$ denotes the subspace of $\Omega_c^1(\Sigma_{\pm})$ with support in $\Sigma_{\pm} \setminus \partial\Sigma_{\pm}$.

In solving Maxwell equations, we require the underlying system to be isolated, so that the flux of relevant physical quantities, such as those built from the stress-energy tensor, is zero through the interface. To translate mathematically this requirement we need to look for symmetric extensions \hat{H} of H , in other words

$$(\hat{H}\psi_1, \psi_2)_{\Sigma} - (\psi_1, \hat{H}\psi_2)_{\Sigma} = \text{vanishing interface terms} \quad \forall \psi_1, \psi_2 \in \text{dom}(\hat{H}) \subseteq L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2}. \quad (2.42)$$

Moreover, we require the extensions of H to be self-adjoint so that the spectral resolution of the operator has only real eigenvalues. This prevents the fundamental solutions of \hat{H} to have exponentially increasing modes, which would result to an unstable physical system.

Proposition 2.3.1. *Let $u, v \in \Omega_c^k(\Sigma_Z)$, then a Green formula holds*

$$(\text{curl } u, v)_{\Sigma} - (u, \text{curl } v)_{\Sigma} = (\gamma_1 u, \gamma_0 v)_Z - (\gamma_0 u, \gamma_1 v)_Z, \quad (2.43)$$

where $\gamma_0 u := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \star [t u]$, \star is the Hodge dual operator on Z and $\gamma_1 u := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(t_+ u + t_- u)$. Moreover, the operator H , defined in (2.38) is symmetric on its domain (see Equation (2.41)), since for any $\psi_1, \psi_2 \in \Omega_c^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2}$ it holds

$$(H\psi_1, \psi_2)_{\Sigma} - (\psi_1, H\psi_2)_{\Sigma} = (\Gamma_1\psi_1, \Gamma_0\psi_2)_Z - (\Gamma_0\psi_1, \Gamma_1\psi_2)_Z, \quad (2.44)$$

where $\psi = [E, B]$ and $\Gamma_0\psi = [i\gamma_1 B, \gamma_1 E]$, $\Gamma_1\psi = [\gamma_0 E, i\gamma_0 B]$.

The former Proposition entails that the operator H is symmetric and hence closable (cf. [Mor18, Thm. 5.10]), its adjoint H^* being defined on

$$\text{dom}(H^*) = \{\psi \in L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2} \mid H\psi \in L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2}\} \quad H^*\psi := H\psi. \quad (2.45)$$

Equation (2.38) is solved by selecting a self-adjoint extension of H . We outline a technique which allows us to parametrize the self-adjoint extensions of H by Lagrangian subspaces of a suitable complex symplectic space – cf. [EM99, EM03, EM05]. The aim is to construct the Green operators for Equation (2.38) together with an interface condition. This technique, even if it does not give a complete characterization of self-adjoint extensions in terms of boundary conditions, allows us to check whether a chosen interface condition admits Green operators or not.

Definition 2.3.2. *Let S be a complex vector space and let $\sigma: S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a sesquilinear map. The pair (S, σ) is called complex symplectic space if σ is non-degenerate – i.e. $\sigma(x, y) = 0$ for all $y \in S$ implies $x = 0$ – and $\sigma(x, y) = -\overline{\sigma(y, x)}$ for all $x, y \in S$. A subspace $L \subseteq S$ is called Lagrangian subspace if $L = L^{\perp} := \{x \in S \mid \sigma(x, y) = 0 \ \forall y \in L\}$.*

For convenience, we summarize the main results in the following theorem:

Theorem 2.3.3 ([EM99]). *Let H be a separable Hilbert space and let $A: \text{dom}(A) \subseteq H \rightarrow H$ be a densely defined, symmetric operator. Then, the bilinear map*

$$\sigma(x, y) := (A^*x, y) - (x, A^*y), \quad \forall x, y \in \text{dom}(A^*), \quad (2.46)$$

satisfies $\sigma(x, y) = -\overline{\sigma(y, x)}$. The symplectic form σ descends to the quotient space $S_A := \text{dom}(A^) / \text{dom}(A)$ and the pair (S_A, σ) is a complex symplectic space as per Definition 2.3.2. Moreover, for all Lagrangian subspaces $L \subseteq S_A$ – cf. Definition 2.3.2 – the operator*

$$A_L := A^*|_{L + \text{dom}(A)}, \quad (2.47)$$

defines a self-adjoint extension of A , where $L + \text{dom}(A)$ denotes the pre-image of L with respect to the projection $\text{dom}(A^) \rightarrow S_A$. Finally the map*

$$\{\text{Lagrangian subspaces } L \text{ of } S_A\} \ni L \mapsto A_L \in \{\text{self-adjoint extensions of } A\}, \quad (2.48)$$

is one-to-one.

Example 2.3.4. As a concrete example of Theorem 2.3.3 we discuss the case of the self-adjoint extensions of the curl operator on a closed manifold Σ with interface Z . For simplicity we assume that $\dim \Sigma = 2k + 1$ with $\dim \Sigma = 3 \pmod{4}$, while curl is defined according to (2.39). We consider the operator curl_Z defined by

$$\text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z) := \overline{\Omega_{\text{cc}}^k(\Sigma_Z)}^{\|\cdot\|_{\text{curl}}}, \quad \text{curl}_Z u := \text{curl } u. \quad (2.49)$$

Notice that $\Omega_{\text{cc}}^k(\Sigma_Z) = \Omega_{\text{cc}}^k(\Sigma_+) \oplus \Omega_{\text{cc}}^k(\Sigma_-)$. The adjoint curl_Z^* of curl_Z is defined on

$$\text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z^*) = \text{dom}(\text{curl}_+) \oplus \text{dom}(\text{curl}_-), \quad (2.50)$$

$$\text{dom}(\text{curl}_\pm) := \{u_\pm \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma_\pm) \mid \text{curl}_\pm u_\pm \in L^2\Omega^k(\Sigma_\pm)\}, \quad \text{curl}_\pm u := \text{curl } u. \quad (2.51)$$

Since complex conjugation commutes with curl, it follows from Von Neumann's criterion [Mor18, Thm. 5.43] that curl_Z admits self-adjoints extensions. We give a description of the complex symplectic space $S_{\text{curl}_Z} := (\text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z^*) / \text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z), \sigma_{\text{curl}})$ whose Lagrangian subspaces allow to characterize all self-adjoint extensions of curl_Z . According to Theorem 2.3.3 the symplectic structure σ_{curl} on the vector space S_{curl_Z} is defined by

$$\sigma_{\text{curl}}(u, v) := (\text{curl}_Z^* u, v) - (u, \text{curl}_Z^* v), \quad \forall u, v \in \text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z^*). \quad (2.52)$$

In particular for $u \in \text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z^*)$ and $v \in H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{\text{curl}}(u, v) &= (\gamma_1 u, \gamma_0 v)_Z - (\gamma_0 u, \gamma_1 v)_Z = \\ &= \sum_{\pm} \pm \int_Z \overline{t_{\pm} u} \wedge t_{\pm} v = \sum_{\pm} \mp \langle t_{\mp} u, \star_Z t_{\mp} v \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}},\end{aligned}\quad (2.53)$$

where $\gamma_0 u := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \star [t u]$, $\gamma_1 u := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(t_+ u + t_- u)$ as in Proposition 2.3.1 and where $-\frac{1}{2} \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}}$ denotes the pairing between $H^{-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(Z)$ and $H^{\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(Z)$. In particular this shows that $t_{\pm} u \in H^{-\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(Z)$ for all $u \in \text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z^*)$ – cf. [AV96, BCS02, Geo79, Paq82, Wec04] for more details on the trace space associated with the curl-operator on a manifold with boundary.

According to Theorem 2.3.3 all self-adjoint extensions of curl_Z are in one-to-one correspondence to the Lagrangian subspaces of S_{curl_Z} . Unfortunately a complete characterization of all Lagrangian subspaces of S_{curl_Z} is not available. It suffices to give a family of Lagrangian subspaces – a generalization of the results presented in [HKT12] may provide other examples. For $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ let

$$L_{\theta} := \{u \in \text{dom}(\text{curl}_Z^*) \mid t_+ u = e^{i\theta} t_- u\}, \quad (2.54)$$

where t_{\pm} denote the tangential traces – cf. Definition 2.2.9, Remark 2.2.5 and Equation (2.53). To show that L_{θ} are Lagrangian subspaces let $u, v \in L_{\theta}$ and let $v_n \in H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z)$ be such that $\|v - v_n\|_{\text{curl}} \rightarrow 0$. In particular $\|(t_+ - e^{i\theta} t_-)v_n\|_{H^{\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(Z)} \rightarrow 0$ so that

$$\sigma_{\text{curl}}(u, v) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sigma_{\text{curl}}(u, v_n) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle t_+ u, \star(t_+ v_n - e^{i\theta} t_- v_n) \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} = 0. \quad (2.55)$$

It follows that $L_{\theta} \subseteq L_{\theta}^{\perp}$. Conversely if $u \in L_{\theta}^{\perp}$ let us consider $v \in L_{\theta}$. Since $u \in L_{\theta}^{\perp}$ we find

$$0 = \sigma_{\text{curl}}(u, v) = - \langle t_+ u - e^{i\theta} t_- u, \star t_+ v \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Since $t_+ : H^1\Omega^k(\Sigma_Z) \rightarrow H^{\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^k(Z)$ is surjective, it follows that $t_+ u = e^{i\theta} t_- u$.

Notice that the self-adjoint extension obtained for $\theta = 0$ coincides with the closure of curl on $\Omega_c^k(\Sigma)$ which is known to be self-adjoint by [Bär19, Lem. 2.6]. Indeed, since $[t]$ is continuous we have $\text{dom}(\overline{\text{curl}}) \subseteq L_0$ so that curl_{Z, L_0} is a self-adjoint extension of $\overline{\text{curl}}$. Since this last operator is already self-adjoint, the two coincide.

Example 2.3.5. We provide a concrete example of 2.3.3 in the case we are mostly interested in: Maxwell equations in the Schrödinger-like form as in Equation (2.38). According to Theorem 2.3.3, the operator H has an associated symplectic space $S_H := (\text{dom}(H^*)/\text{dom}(H), \sigma_H)$, where

$$\sigma_H(\psi_1, \psi_2) = (H^* \psi_1, \psi_2) - (\psi_1, H^* \psi_2), \quad \forall \psi_1, \psi_2 \in \text{dom}(H^*). \quad (2.56)$$

In particular, if $\psi_1 \in \text{dom}(H^*)$ and $\psi_2 \in H^1\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}$ and denoting ψ as the couple $[E, B]$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_H(\psi_1, \psi_2) &= -i\sigma_{\text{curl}}(B_1, E_2) + i\sigma_{\text{curl}}(E_1, B_2) = \\ &= i \left[-\frac{1}{2} \langle t_+ \psi_1, \star S t_+ \psi_2 \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{1}{2} \langle t_- \psi_1, \star S t_- \psi_2 \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} \right],\end{aligned}\quad (2.57)$$

where σ_{curl} is defined in Equations (2.52), (2.53), $-\frac{1}{2} \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}}$ is the pairing between $H^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ and $H^{\frac{1}{2}}$,

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \text{SO}(2),$$

\star is the Hodge operator on Z and, as usual, t_{\pm} denote the tangential **traces**.

We give a family of Lagrangian subspaces which encode the following class of interface conditions. For $U \in \text{SO}(2)$, let us define the space

$$L_U := \{\psi \in \text{dom}(H^*) \mid t_+ \psi = U t_- \psi\}. \quad (2.58)$$

To show that L_U are Lagrangian subspaces we mimic the technique used in the former Example 2.3.4. Let $\psi_1 = [E_1, B_1], \psi_2 = [E_2, B_2] \in L_U$ and let $\psi_n = [E_n, B_n] \in H^1\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}$ such that $\|E_2 - E_n\|_{\text{curl}} \rightarrow 0$ and $\|B_2 - B_n\|_{\text{curl}} \rightarrow 0$.

In particular it holds that $\|(t_+ - U t_-)\psi_n\|_{H^{\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}} \rightarrow 0$. Hence $L_U \subseteq L_U^{\perp}$ follows from

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_H(\psi_1, \psi_2) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sigma_H(\psi_1, \psi_n) = \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} i \left[-\frac{1}{2} \langle t_+ \psi_1, \star S t_+ \psi_n \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{1}{2} \langle U^{-1} t_+ \psi_1, \star S t_- \psi_n \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} \right] = \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} i \left[-\frac{1}{2} \langle t_+ \psi_1, \star S (t_+ \psi_n - U t_- \psi_n) \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} \right] = 0.\end{aligned}\quad (2.59)$$

Conversely if $\psi_1 \in L_U^{\perp}$ let us consider $v \in L_U$. Hence, we find

$$0 = \sigma_H(\psi_1, \psi_2) = i \left[-\frac{1}{2} \langle (t_+ \psi_1 - U t_- \psi_1), \star S t_+ \psi_2 \rangle_{\frac{1}{2}} \right].$$

Since $t_+ : H^1\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2} \rightarrow H^{\frac{1}{2}}\Omega^1(Z)^{\times 2}$ is surjective, it follows that $t_+ \psi_1 = U t_- \psi_1$.

Following slavishly the passages of Example 2.3.4, one can also show that the following family of subspaces of S_H , that can be expressed in terms of interface conditions, are Lagrangian and hence, give rise to a self-adjoint extensions of H :

$$L_{\theta} := \{u \in \text{dom}(H^*) \mid t_+ \psi = e^{i\theta} t_- \psi\}. \quad (2.60)$$

We conclude this section by introducing an exact sequence which provides a complete description of the solution space of the Maxwell equations (2.3a) with interface Z .

Theorem 2.3.6. *Let H be the densely defined operator on $L^2\Omega^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2}$ with domain defined by (2.41) and let H^* be its adjoint, defined as in (2.45). Let $L \subset S_H = (\text{dom}(H^*)/\text{dom}(H), \sigma_Z)$ be a Lagrangian subspace in the sense of Definition 2.3.2 and consider the self-adjoint extension H_L as per Theorem 2.3.3. Furthermore, let $H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2} := \bigcap_{k \geq 0} \text{dom}(H_L^k)$ and let G_L^\pm be the operators $G_L^\pm: C_{\text{tc}}^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}) \rightarrow C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2})$ completely determined in terms of the bidistributions $\mathcal{G}_L^+ = \theta(t - t')\mathcal{G}_L$ and $\mathcal{G}_L^- = -\theta(t' - t)\mathcal{G}_L$, with*

$$\mathcal{G}_L(\psi_1, \psi_2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \left(\psi_1(t) \middle| e^{-i(t-t')H_L} \psi_2(t') \right) dt dt' \quad \forall \psi_1, \psi_2 \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \Omega_c^1(\Sigma)^{\times 2}). \quad (2.61)$$

The operator G_L^+ (resp. G_L^-) is an advanced (resp. retarded) solution of $i\partial_t - H_L$, that is, it holds

$$(i\partial_t - H_L) \circ G_L^\pm = \text{Id}_{C_{\text{tc}}^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2})}, \quad (2.62)$$

$$G_L^\pm \circ (i\partial_t - H_L) = \text{Id}_{C_{\text{tc}}^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2})}. \quad (2.63)$$

Moreover, let $G_L := G_L^+ - G_L^-$. Then the following is a short exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow C_{\text{tc}}^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}) &\xrightarrow{i\partial_t - H_L} C_{\text{tc}}^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}) \\ &\xrightarrow{G_L} C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}) \xrightarrow{i\partial_t - H_L} C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}) \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned} \quad (2.64)$$

Proof. Most of it is an analogue of [DDF19, Thm. 30- Prop. 36]. We observe that the function $\sigma(H_L) \ni \lambda \mapsto e^{-i\lambda\tau}$ is smooth and bounded for all $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence, for any $\psi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \Omega_c^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2})$, $G_L^\pm \psi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \text{dom } H_L)$. We have, for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$(1 + H_L)^k [G_L^\pm \psi](t) = G_L^\pm [(1 + H_L)^k \psi](t) = G_L^\pm [(1 + H)^k \psi](t),$$

which is an element of $L^2\Omega(\Sigma)^{\times 2}$, since $(1 + H)\psi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}, \Omega_c^1(\Sigma))$. It follows that $G_L^\pm \psi(t) \in H_L^\infty\Omega^1(\Sigma_Z)^{\times 2}$ and Equation (2.61) holds true.

It remains to prove the finite speed of propagation, which follows from [HR00, MM13]. In particular, the hypotheses of [MM13, Thm. 1.1] are met since H_L is self-adjoint and from a straightforward computation it holds

$$\|[\eta I, H_L]\psi\| \leq \|\nabla \eta\|_\infty \|\psi\| \quad \forall \psi \in \text{dom } H_L, \eta \in \text{Lip}(\Sigma) \cap C^1(\Sigma).$$

Hence, [MM13, Thm. 1.1] ensures that the propagation speed of the one-parameter group e^{itH_L} is finite and smaller than 1 in the sense that

$$\text{supp}(e^{-itH_L}\psi) \subset J^+(\text{supp } \psi), \quad t \geq 0,$$

where the brackets $[\cdot, \cdot]$ denote the commutator.

The second part of the statement regarding the exact sequence follows imitating slavishly the

standard arguments of [BGP15, Th. 3.4.7] [DDF19, Prop. 36]. □

Notice that the exact sequence (2.64) implies that the space of smooth solution of the dynamical equations (2.3a) is isomorphic as a vector space to the image of G_L .

Appendix A

Poincaré-Lefschetz duality for manifold with boundary

In this section we summarize a few definitions and results concerning de Rham cohomology and Poincaré duality, especially when the underlying manifold has a non empty boundary. A reader interested in more details can refer to [BT82, Sch95].

For the purpose of this section M refers to a smooth, oriented manifold of dimension $\dim M = d$ with a smooth boundary ∂M , together with an embedding map $\iota_{\partial M} : M \rightarrow \partial M$. In addition ∂M comes endowed with orientation induced from M via $\iota_{\partial M}$. We recall that $\Omega^\bullet(M)$ stands for the de Rham cochain complex which in degree $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ corresponds to $\Omega^k(M)$, the space of smooth k -forms. Observe that we shall need to work only with compactly supported forms and all definitions can be adapted accordingly. To indicate this specific choice, we shall use a subscript c , e.g. $\Omega_c^\bullet(M)$. We denote instead the k -th de Rham cohomology group of M as

$$H^k(M) \doteq \frac{\text{Ker}(d_k)}{\text{Im}(d_{k-1})}, \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where we introduce the subscript k to highlight that the differential operator d acts on k -forms. Equations (1.4) and (1.5b) entail that we can define the $\Omega_t^\bullet(M)$, the subcomplex of $\Omega^\bullet(M)$, whose degree k corresponds to $\Omega_t^k(M) \subset \Omega^k(M)$. The associated de Rham cohomology groups will be denoted as $H_t^k(M)$, $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

Similarly we can work with the codifferential δ in place of d , hence identifying a chain complex $\Omega^\bullet(M; \delta)$ which in degree $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ corresponds to $\Omega^k(M)$, the space of smooth k -forms. The associated k -th cohomology groups will be denoted with

$$H^k(M; \delta) \doteq \frac{\text{Ker}(\delta_k)}{\text{Im}(\delta_{k+1})}.$$

Equations (1.4) and (1.5b) entail that we can define the $\Omega_n^\bullet(M; \delta)$, the subcomplex of $\Omega^\bullet(M; \delta)$, whose degree k corresponds to $\Omega_n^k(M) \subset \Omega^k(M)$. The associated cohomology groups will be denoted as $H^{k,n}(M; \delta)$, $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. Observe that, in view of its definition, the Hodge operator induces an isomorphism $H^k(M) \simeq H^{d-k}(M; \delta)$ which is realized as $H^k(M) \ni [\alpha] \mapsto [* \alpha] \in$

$H_{d-k}(M; \delta)$. Similarly, on account of Equation (1.5b), it holds $H_t^k(M) \simeq H_{d-k,n}(M; \delta)$.

As last ingredient, we introduce the notion of relative cohomology, cf. [BT82]. We start by defining the relative de Rham cochain complex $\Omega^\bullet(M; \partial M)$ which in degree $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ corresponds to

$$\Omega^k(M, \partial M) \doteq \Omega^k(M) \oplus \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M),$$

endowed with the differential operator $\underline{d}_k : \Omega^k(M; \partial M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M; \partial M)$ such that for any $(\omega, \theta) \in \Omega^k(M; \partial M)$

$$\underline{d}_k(\omega, \theta) = (d\omega, \iota_{\partial M}^* \omega - d_\partial \theta). \quad (\text{A.2})$$

Per construction, each $\Omega^k(M; \partial M)$ comes endowed naturally with the projections on each of the defining components, namely $\pi_1 : \Omega^k(M; \partial M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)$ and $\pi_2 : \Omega^k(M; \partial M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(\partial M)$. With a slight abuse of notation we make no explicit reference to k in the symbol of these maps, since the domain of definition will be always clear from the context. The relative cohomology groups associated to \underline{d}_k will be denoted instead as $H^k(M; \partial M)$ and the following proposition characterizes the relation with the standard de Rham cohomology groups built on M and on ∂M , cf. [BT82, Prop. 6.49]:

Proposition A.0.1. *Under the geometric assumptions specified at the beginning of the section, there exists an exact sequence*

$$\dots \rightarrow H^k(M; \partial M) \xrightarrow{\pi_{1,*}} H^k(M) \xrightarrow{\iota_{\partial M,*}} H^k(\partial M) \xrightarrow{\pi_{2,*}} H^{k+1}(M; \partial M) \rightarrow \dots, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

where $\pi_{1,*}$, $\pi_{2,*}$ and $\iota_{\partial M,*}$ indicate the natural counterpart of the maps π_1 , π_2 and $\iota_{\partial M}$ at the level of cohomology groups.

The relevance of the relative cohomology groups in our analysis is highlighted by the following statement, of which we give a concise proof:

Proposition A.0.2. *Under the geometric assumptions specified at the beginning of the section, there exists an isomorphism between $H_t^k(M)$ and $H^k(M, \partial M)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.*

Proof. Consider $\omega \in \Omega_t^k(M) \cap \ker(d)$ and let $(\omega, 0) \in \Omega^k(M; \partial M)$, $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. Equation (A.2) entails

$$\underline{d}_k(\omega, 0) = (d\omega, \iota_{\partial M}^* \omega) = (d\omega, t\omega) = (0, 0),$$

where we used (1.3a) in the second equality. At the same time, if $\omega = d\beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega_t^{k-1}(M)$, then $\underline{d}_{k-1}(\beta, 0) = (d\beta, 0)$. Hence the embedding $\omega \mapsto (\omega, 0)$ identifies an injective map $\rho : H_t^k(M) \rightarrow H^k(M; \partial M)$ such that $\rho([\omega]) \doteq [(\omega, 0)]$.

To conclude, we need to prove that ρ is surjective. Let thus $[(\omega', \theta)] \in H^k(M; \partial M)$. It holds that $d\omega' = 0$ and $\iota_{\partial M}^* \omega' - d_\partial \theta = t(\omega') - d_\partial \theta = 0$. Recalling that $t : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(\partial M)$

is surjective for all values of $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, there must exist $\eta \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ such that $t(\eta) = \theta$. Let $\omega \doteq \omega' - d\eta$. On account of (1.5b) $\omega \in \Omega_t^k(M) \cap \ker(d)$ and $(\omega, 0)$ is a representative of $[(\omega', \theta)]$ which entails the conclusion sought. \square

To conclude, we recall a notable result concerning the relative cohomology, which is a specialization to the case in-hand of the Poincaré-Lefschetz duality, an account of which can be found in [Mau80]:

Theorem A.0.3. *Under the geometric assumptions specified at the beginning of the section and assuming in addition that M admits a finite good cover, it holds that, for all $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$*

$$H^k(M; \partial M) \simeq H_c^{n-k}(M; \partial M)^*,$$

where $n = \dim M$ and where on the right hand side we consider the dual of the $(n - k)$ -th cohomology group built out compactly supported forms.

The proof proceeds in some steps. Let $\iota : \partial M \rightarrow M$ be the immersion map. First of all we have to check that the spaces are finite-dimensional and that the pairing $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : H^{n-k}(M) \otimes H_c^k(M, \partial M)$ defined by

$$\langle \alpha, (\omega, \theta) \rangle := \int_M \alpha \wedge \omega + \int_{\partial M} \iota^* \alpha \wedge \theta \quad \forall \alpha \in H^{n-k}(M) \text{ and } (\omega, \theta) \in H_c^k(M, \partial M), \quad (\text{A.4})$$

is non-degenerate, equivalently the map $\alpha \rightarrow \langle \alpha, \cdot \rangle$ should be an isomorphism.

Since a manifold M with boundary is locally homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}_+^n := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1 \geq 0\}$ we need Poincaré lemmas for \mathbb{R}_+^n .

Lemma A.0.4 (Poincaré lemmas for half spaces). *Let $\mathbb{R}_+^n := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1 \geq 0\}$ and $k \geq 0$. Then*

$$H^k(\mathbb{R}_+^n) \simeq \begin{cases} \mathbb{R} & \text{if } k = 0 \\ \{0\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$H_c^k(\mathbb{R}_+^n, \partial \mathbb{R}_+^n) \simeq \begin{cases} \mathbb{R} & \text{if } k = n \\ \{0\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

Proof. The proof for the case $n = 1$, i.e. $\mathbb{R}_+ = [0, +\infty)$ is straightforward and the n -dimensional generalisation is obtained as in ([BT82, Sec. 4]). \square

Lemma A.0.5 (Mayer-Vietoris sequences). *Let M be an orientable manifold with boundary ∂M , suppose $M = U \cup V$ with U, V open and denote $\partial M_A := \partial M \cap A$. Then the following*

are exact sequences:

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^k(M, \partial M) \rightarrow H^k(U, \partial M_U) \oplus H^k(V, \partial M_V) \rightarrow H^k(U \cap V, \partial M_{U \cap V}) \rightarrow H^{k+1}(M, \partial M) \rightarrow \cdots \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$\cdots \leftarrow H_c^k(M, \partial M) \leftarrow H_c^k(U, \partial M_U) \oplus H_c^k(V, \partial M_V) \leftarrow H_c^k(U \cap V, \partial M_{U \cap V}) \leftarrow H_c^{k+1}(M, \partial M) \leftarrow \cdots \quad (\text{A.8})$$

Proof. We will only prove the non-compact cohomology line.

We have the following Mayer-Vietoris short exact sequences for M and ∂M :

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \Omega^k(M) &\longrightarrow \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V) \longrightarrow \Omega^k(U \cap V) \longrightarrow 0 \\ 0 \longrightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M) &\longrightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M_U) \oplus \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M_V) \longrightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(\partial M_{U \cap V}) \longrightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence applying the direct sum between the two sequences we obtain

$$0 \longrightarrow \Omega^k(M, \partial M) \longrightarrow \Omega^k(U, \partial M_U) \oplus \Omega^k(V, \partial M_V) \longrightarrow \Omega^k(U \cap V, \partial M_{U \cap V}) \longrightarrow 0.$$

The last row induces the desired long sequence because of the following commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & \Omega^k(M, \partial M) & \longrightarrow & \Omega^k(U, \partial M_U) \oplus \Omega^k(V, \partial M_V) & \longrightarrow & \Omega^k(U \cap V, \partial M_{U \cap V}) & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow d & & \downarrow d:=d \oplus d & & \downarrow d & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \Omega^{k+1}(M, \partial M) & \longrightarrow & \Omega^{k+1}(U, \partial M_U) \oplus \Omega^{k+1}(V, \partial M_V) & \longrightarrow & \Omega^{k+1}(U \cap V, \partial M_{U \cap V}) & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array} \quad (\text{A.9})$$

following the arguments in [BT82], section 2. Fix a closed form $\omega \in \Omega^k(U \cap V, \partial M_{U \cap V})$, since the first row is exact there exists a unique $\xi \in \Omega^{k+1}(M, \partial M)$ which is mapped to ω . Now, since $d\omega = 0$ and the diagram is commutative $d\xi$ is mapped to 0. Hence from the exactness of the second row there exists χ which is mapped to $d\xi$ and it easy to see χ is closed. \square

Lemma A.0.6. *If the manifold with boundary M has a finite good cover (see [BT82, Sec. 5]) then its (relative) cohomology and (relative) compact cohomology is finite dimensional.*

Proof. The proof is based on the existence of a Mayer-Vietoris sequence in any of the desired cases (proved in the previous proposition) and follows the outline of [BT82, Prop. 5.3.1]. \square

Lemma A.0.7 (Five lemma). *Given the commutative diagram with exact rows*

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & D & \longrightarrow & E & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f & & \downarrow g & & \downarrow h & & \downarrow r & & \downarrow s & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & A' & \longrightarrow & B' & \longrightarrow & C' & \longrightarrow & D' & \longrightarrow & E' & \longrightarrow & \cdots \end{array} \quad (\text{A.10})$$

if f, g, h, s are isomorphism, then so is r .

Lemma A.0.8. Suppose $M = U \cup V$ with U, V open. The pairing (A.4) induces a map from the upper exact sequence to the dual of the lower exact sequence such that the following diagram is commutative:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & H^{n-k}(M) & \longrightarrow & H^{n-k}(U) \oplus H^{n-k}(V) & \longrightarrow & H^{n-k+1}(M) \longrightarrow \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & H^k(M, \partial M)^* & \longrightarrow & H^k(U, \partial M_U)^* \oplus H^k(V, \partial M_V)^* & \longrightarrow & H^{k-1}(M)^* \longrightarrow \cdots
 \end{array}
 \tag{A.11}$$

Proof. The proof follows that of [BT82, Lem. 5.6]. \square

Now we are ready to prove the main theorem of this section:

Proof of Poincaré-Lefschetz Duality. Follow the argument given in [BT82, Sec. 5]. By the Five lemma if Poincaré-Lefschetz duality holds for U, V and $U \cap V$, then it holds for $U \cup V$. Then it is sufficient to proceed by induction on the cardinality of a finite good cover. \square

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List of Abbreviations

LAH List Abbreviations **Here**

WSF What (it) Stands **For**

List of Symbols

a	distance	m
P	power	W (J s^{-1})
ω	angular frequency	rad

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